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ABSTRACT

Employees in different kinds of organizations were surveyed for their perceptions of their companies' client and operational problem-solving networks. The individuals came from a manufacturing firm, a community college, a telephone company, a farmers' cooperative, and a hospital. Interviews were conducted with those people reporting numerous contacts with clients. It was found that each of the organizations had a communication network designed to solve clients' problems and that the problem-solving network was different from the operational network. Interviewees labeled seven problem-solving functions: predicting potential problems, detecting current problems, facilitating solutions, consulting with resource persons, actually solving the problem, implementing the solution, and bringing in authority figures to deal with "unsolvable" problems. Individuals who were labeled "autonomous problem solvers" (APSs) exhibited the personal traits of effective managers and were located in the broad middle of the organizational hierarchy--high enough to have access to many levels of authority and low enough to have direct contact with client concerns on a daily basis. There was no apparent relationship between an organization's autonomy/client accountability and the evaluation of the efficiency of the client problem-solving network. (RL)

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CLIENT-CENTERED PROBLEM-SOLVING NETWORKS IN COMPLEX ORGANIZATIONS

Charles Tucker
Michael Hanna

INTRODUCTION

A continuing complaint in our society is that complex organizations do not, or cannot, respond to the needs of the public they are designed to serve. This complaint is most commonly worded in such cliches as: "You can't fight City Hall," or "You can't beat the system," or "You can't cut through the red tape." A primary cause of the apparent dissatisfaction may stem from the inability of complex organizations to adjust problem solving networks from a focus on production to a focus on clients.

Our purpose in this study is to describe and assess the mechanisms by which client problems are or are not solved in diverse organizations, in comparison with the mechanisms by which operational problems are solved. The existence of these mechanisms may be explained from a communication perspective. Thayer (1968) posited four propositions about organizational problem-solving:

1. Problems exist only in people. That is, the event's importance, meaning and significance is a property of people, and not of the event or situation.

2. Problems exist only in the form in which they are comprehended or conceived.

3. The problems we set out to solve are the ones we name.

4. The problems people have available (or think they could get) determine the sorts of problems which they perceive and the way they classify or name these problems.

If Thayer is right, then individuals within an organization define the same set of circumstances in ways different from the definition a client may apply. If a member on the organization's boundary sees a problem as operation-oriented ("This person is really a monkey to keep off the boss's back. I'll send her to someone else.") rather than client-oriented ("This person does have a problem. It's appropriate for me to try to help her."), he may be inadvertently creating

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communication patterns which help to increase a general societal distrust of complex organizations.

If such a difference exists, it would appear to arise from differences between the communication networks which an organization uses to accomplish its daily work and the networks it uses to take client problems into account.

THE RELEVANT LITERATURE

Two recently published reviews make clear that the literature related to this problem is slim, at best. Katz and Danet (1973) cite only two "pioneering but sketchy" treatments of organization-client communications; one by Blau and Scott (1962) and one by March (1965). Both refer to the general organization-client relationship in a suppositional way, but neither treats the questions at issue.

Katz and Danet (1973) had focused on discovering what is known about organizational problem-solving. They concluded that "the burgeoning literature on formal organizations gives prominent attention to the interaction of officials within an organization, but only scant attention to what goes on between the organization and its clients."

Related to clients, Blau (1960) found that experience increased a caseworker's ability to serve clients in a client-centered organization, but decreased his interest in doing so. Support from that caseworker's peers, however, increased his satisfaction in serving clients and his ability to provide professional services to them. Blau and Scott (1962) found evidence suggesting that aggressive clients were perceived as aggressive either because they had broken the rules, or else they were from a higher socio-economic group and were therefore better educated, and thus more familiar with agency functions.

Bar-Yosef and Schild (1966) later discussed how clients put pressure on bureaucrats and how the bureaucrats coped with it. If a client is "socialized"

(accepts bureaucratic authority as legitimate, stays within civilized rules of conversational conduct, and realizes that the bureaucrat is limited by the demands of his organization), the bureaucrat is under less pressure. Unsocialized client behavior can cause a bureaucrat either to overconform to the authorized procedures, or to disregard the rules entirely.

A pro-client attitude results in at least two different orientations, which might be in conflict. Since agencies must distribute benefits as well as withhold them, the boundary agent has to determine whether to offer services to the client, or screen the client from receiving the services. Clearly, the perception of the client by the boundary agent becomes relevant. Interestingly, boundary agents, early in their relationship with clients, tend to conform rigidly to the rules--and do not appear to relax this conformity until they have interacted with clients over time.

The boundary agent can bring pressure on his or her clients through appeals to the organization's rules or structure. But what recourse has a client in bringing pressure to bear on the organization? Katz and Danet (1973) identified five circumstances in which clients (in this case, Israeli immigrants) attempt to influence the organization. Study of these circumstances is revealing, for, by implication at least, they suggest the motivation of an organizational member to define the client's problems from a production orientation. If Thayer was right, this is important because it may be the crux of the organization's apparent inability to solve client-centered problems. Faced with a production problem, the employee utilizes a production-oriented solution. But the client's problem, for his or her perspective--may not get solved or even seriously considered.

According to Katz and Danet, clients often try to bring pressure in circumstances of necessity, such as seeking a loan and in a context contrary to the clients position: (1) under conditions where the rules of the organization do

not guarantee an automatic transfer of resources to the client, as when some bureaucrat has discretionary control over benefits; (2) following some refusal on the part of an organizational member; when, through ignorance or intent, the client initiates an unnecessary or inappropriate appeal; and (3) under conditions of role impingement--commonly known as "pulling strings." In each of these circumstances the organization holds the power, and individual members are more likely to perceive the client negatively. The client's recourse under any of these circumstances is minimal.

Rosengren and Lefton (1969) and Thompson (1973) share the conclusion that complex organizations tend to dehumanize clients, dealing with them as if the clients were merely some undifferentiated public. There appear to be only two axes along which organization-client transactions may be described: whether the boundary person has a cut-and-dried procedure, and whether the client has any choice in dealing with the organization (client autonomy).

The role of the boundary agent, and his or her character, have been studied, though not extensively. Kahn (1964) was the first to use the nomenclature "boundary agent" in describing people "with constant dealings outside their own company." He suggests that the conflict puts the boundary agent into situations where he or she lacks formal authority and must adapt to the situation. Thus the boundary agent "will be able to manipulate words and symbols, have a good memory, be both flexible and extroverted, and possess economic and political values."

Adams (1976) adds to the profile by suggesting that the boundary person is more distant (psychologically, organizationally and perhaps physically) from other members of the organization than they are from each other. The boundary agent is believed by his or her organization to be more often called into question as far as loyalty is concerned than are the other organization members.

Finally, Tushman (1977) puts the boundary role into focus. The boundary agent's role is to satisfy the need of a complex organization for an innovating

system which gathers information from, and transmits information to, external informational areas; the need to link internal networks to external sources of information; and the need to interpret the organization to external persons. The boundary agent's role evolves out of the particular needs of an organization, occurs at several organizational boundaries, and is distributed in accordance with the nature of the organization's work.

PLAN OF THE STUDY

None of this research clarifies the relationships between client problem-solving networks and other communication networks within the organization. We posed four questions:

1. Do client problem-solving networks exist in different kinds of organizations? If so, are they the same or different from operational networks?

2. What are the functional characteristics of client problem-solving networks and of the members of those networks?

3. How are the client and operational problem-solving networks related?

4. Are there relationships between the characteristics of the sampled organizations and their effectiveness in solving client problems?

A survey was undertaken to determine how employees in different kinds of organizations who deal with client problems perceive the questioned relationships. Executives of twenty organizations were contacted, and permission requested to distribute questionnaires and to interview selected members. From this set, we chose one manufacturing firm to serve as a pilot study to validate and revise the questionnaires and develop interview procedure. Two questionnaires were thus developed, one for product-oriented and one for client-centered organizations. (See Appendix A.) Five organizations were selected for the final study: a manufacturing firm, a community college, a telephone company, a farmers' cooperative, and a hospital.

Identification of client-related employees: In each organization questionnaires were distributed to each member who was in a position to have direct or indirect contact with clients and their problems. The object of the questionnaires was to elicit the names of people each respondent contacted in the process of dealing with client-centered problems and to get an idea of the frequency of that contact. When the questionnaires were returned, each contact by a respondent with a colleague or with each respondent by a colleague was tabulated on a separate computer card. A COBOL computer program graphically displayed each respondent's claimed contacts as well as contacts with the respondent claimed by other organization members. We chose to interview those members of each organization whose contacts appeared to be numerous, widely distributed horizontally among different divisions, and well distributed vertically in the organizational structure.

Interview Procedure: We conducted one-hour interviews with the persons thus chosen. We began with an open-ended inquiry: "How do you see yourself as fitting into a network of people who communicate among themselves in order to perceive and deal with client problems?" We defined client as customer or dealer or student or patient or whatever term referred most clearly to the clients of that particular organization. The answer to this question often took up over half of the interview, with spontaneous questions to elicit as complete a picture as possible of how each interviewee communicated, how he or she felt about the communication process, and how interviewees in the same company felt about themselves and each other as communicators. When an exhaustive answer to this question had been elicited, we supplemented the first question with several more detailed questions about the day to day communication process in the organization. Interviewers wrote down first impressions immediately following each interview to provide a context for the tape recordings, which were reviewed and evaluated. The results cited in this study were based on these written and tape-recorded materials.

RESULTS

Question 1: Do client problem-solving networks exist in different kinds of organizations? If so, are they the same or different from operational networks?

All interviewees testified to the existence of different, overlapping networks. Two are represented below for illustration. The specific characteristics of both the operational and client problem-solving networks are unique to each organization studied. The fact that in all cases both networks are identifiable and are different justifies the conclusion that client problem-solving needs to be studied as a special, important kind of organizational communication. The hospital's client-centered problem solving network is shown in Figure 1 and its operational network is shown in Figure 2. The Telephone Company's client-centered network is shown in Figure 3 and its operational network in Figure 4. Solid arrows refer to a problem being partially dealt with and passed on to another person, especially in the case of more difficult or unusual problems. Arrows with dotted shafts refer to a consultation with a colleague concerning a problem. Points show direction of flow, and points on both ends of an arrow refer to interchange.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Question 2: What are the functional characteristics of client problem-solving networks and of the members of those networks?

We found that the interviewees descriptions of what they did for clients fell into seven problem-solving functions:

1. prediction of potential problems before they occur;

2. detection of a current problem;

3. facilitation of the problem's solution, i.e., referring it to the person best qualified to deal with it;

4. consultation of an expert resource person to ask information;

5. the actual solving of the problem;

6. the implementation of that solution;

7. bringing in someone in high authority as a last resort to deal with an "unsolvable" problem, i.e., someone with "clout."

Thus, solving problems can involve as many as seven different individuals, if not more. They can be labelled, respectively, predictor, detector, facilitator, resource person, solver, implementer and authority figure.

One of these functionaries is treated by Schwartz (1977) under the label of "liaison." Schwartz's liaison is our facilitator, in regard to problem solving. A liaison or facilitator must be aware of the problem-solving capabilities of both colleagues and subordinates in a wide range of different areas or departments and must have their respect to the extent that they will respond favorably to requests or demands for problem-solving cooperation. A facilitator may be officially designated or may tacitly perform the referral function.

In addition, we find that an aspect of the detection sub-function has been ascribed by Tushman (1977) to a "boundary agent," who operates close to the outer "skin" of an organization. We found in the organizations that we investigated that while problems are often detected at the edges of the organizational structure, i.e., by salesmen or secretaries or switchboard operators, detection often occurs at several different levels of the hierarchy and in several different areas of operation. This appears to be due, in part, to everyone's accessibility by telephone to any client who can ask for a particular person by name. Regular clients soon learn who to call to get things done. In one

organization we studied, the farmers' cooperative, we did find a classic example of a boundary agent operating at a high level of autonomy rather than functioning merely as a detector of problems. The branch office secretaries are in a position to exercise a high level of problem-solving autonomy because they are often the only person present in the branch office and because they have often been in their position longer than the branch managers.

The seven problem-solving sub-functions may be performed by different people or, as often happens, several of the sub-functions can coalesce in one person. For the purpose of this study, anyone in an organization who performs at least five of the seven is designated as an Autonomous Problem Solver (APS). The Autonomous Problem Solvers in this study are the patient representative and assistant administrator at the hospital, the controller and two of the branch secretaries at the farmers' cooperative, the customer service manager at the telephone company, the executive dean, the dean of student services and the associate dean for administration at the college, and two of the product managers at the manufacturing company.

In addition to some common personality traits like ambition, "workaholism," assertiveness, tact and a concern for the client's welfare, APS's usually share certain systemic characteristics. With the exception of the branch secretaries just mentioned, all of the APS's in this study are at a middle or high authority level in the organizational hierarchy. They are high enough in the hierarchy to have mobility, a wide range of prerogatives, detailed knowledge of company structure, free access to colleagues and subordinates, extended scope of responsibility, a measure of authority, and a strong motivation to solve problems, due in part, perhaps, to a vested interest in the success of the organization. A person who is <u>too high</u> in the hierarchy has lost mobility and access to a full range of personal contacts, causing a decrease in sensitivity to problems, while a middle manager retains accessibility and an image of being "one of the group," someone who can be confided in.

On the other hand, a person can be too low in the hierarchy to be an effective problem solver, having little or no mobility, little work contact with a range of co-workers in different departments, and little or no knowledge of the complexity of organization structure and procedures. Having a narrow and limited viewpoint of problems and their causes, such persons can merely detect symptoms of trouble, relay them, and perhaps eventually implement solutions reached by a superior, but not actually solve problems themselves. Nevertheless, several of our interviewees indicated that they placed a high value on their previous experience at the lower end of the hierarchy. They said that once they had reached middle management status, their lower echelon experience afforded them retrospective insight into the details of day-to-day operational procedures, familiarity with the detection of problems at the boundaries of the organization, and understanding of the pressures and demands faced by lower level workers, which they can take into account when making requests or demands for implementation of problem solutions.

Question 3: How are the operational and client problem-solving networks related?

By examining the degree to which the seven problem-solving sub-functions are most often shared, we were able to derive an order of importance of these functions. By looking separately at the two kinds of networks in this regard, we can also see if there is a different order of importance for the seven functions in the client-centered networks than there is in the operations-centered networks. Figure 5 shows the sub-functions performed by the APSs in the client networks.

Figure 5

In client networks, clearly, the functions of detection, resource and solution are the ones shared by all eight client network APSs, while seven are predictors,

five are facilitators or implementors and only four appeal to authority.

Figure 6 gives the sub-functions performed by the APSs in the operation-centered networks.

Figure 6

Again, in the operations networks, all five APSs are resource people and solvers, but only four are detectors. Four are also facilitators, with only two implementors and two authority appealants. To see the comparative frequency of sharing of the seven functions, we combine the frequencies in Figure 3, which shows that APSs are most often detectors, resource people and solvers, less often predictors, facilitators and implementors, and least often appealants to authority.

Figure 7

In summary, questions two and three lead to the following conclusions: (1) The relative importance of the seven functions appear to be similar in both networks. This similarity supports the validity of these categories for individuals in the kinds of positions described here. (2) While the organization charts emphasize the operational network, the individuals we interviewed placed equal or greater emphasis on their ability to be effective in the client problem-solving network. (3) Finally, while interviewees were able to clearly distinguish between operational and client problem-solving networks, they needed to have competence in both to serve clients effectively.

Question 4: Are there relationships between the characteristics of the sampled organizations and the effectiveness of those organizations in client problem-solving?

Both Thompson (1973) and Rosengren and Lefton (1969) dealt with the factor

of "whether the client has any choice in dealing with the organization." We call the client's ability to choose among several organizations for the products or services being offered "client autonomy." To determine the degree to which operational and client problem-solving networks overlap, as opposed to conflicting, we have plotted the APS's according to the networks in which they are involved. Figure 8 shows the distribution of APS's among the networks, with six in both networks of their organizations, four in the client network alone, and only one solely in his organization's operational problem-solving network. This distribution of problem-solving specialists (10 of 11) who focus on client problems belies the common sense expectation we began with that client-centered and operational networks would be at odds with each other or quite separate from each other.

Figure 8

Public utility companies provide excellent examples of organizations which do not exist in a competitive market. Their clients have no choice or autonomy because they cannot choose between competing utility companies. Super markets and gasoline stations exemplify the opposite extreme since they are organizations which exist in highly competitive markets. Our study sample varies in respect to the degree of client autonomy involved. The manufacturing company exists in the most competitive market of the five, with the farmers' cooperative running a close second. The college, being the only two-year college in the local area, has an advantage in attracting local students. The hospital has no competition under emergency conditions and limited, but significant, competition in other cases. The telephone company is the only game in town.

Another difference among organization types is the degree to which clients could legally and directly hold the organization accountable for its actions. While all organizations are subject to legal constraints, the client has more

immediate impact in some organizations than in others. We studied a farmers' cooperative which involved a managerial staff hired and fired by a vote of the members--members who are also the major patrons of the organization. We also examined a manufacturing company which was not so directly controlled by clients. Even so, client satisfaction is the company's primary concern. The community college is primarily accountable to local government for support and to the state legislature for regulatory control of curriculum and educational policy, and a telephone company depends on government for both regulation and the setting of fees. The hospital is accountable to regulatory agencies and also to an autonomous medical staff. Its clients are limited in their capacities to judge the organization's performance, assess where to place blame when blame is called for, and to bring legal action when such action is desired. Figure 9 gives a ranking, in order from most to least, of how much each organization we studied is constrained by client autonomy and organizational accountability to the client.

Figure 9

Notice that, while the rankings do not match exactly in these two dimensions, they are very similar, never differing to more than one degree in either direction. Clearly, if client autonomy and organizational accountability are measures of the organization's motivation to respond to client problems, then the manufacturing company and the farmers' cooperative should have a greater motivation to be responsive to client complaint than the hospital and the telephone company. The community college should fall in the middle of such a continuum.

It is reasonable to suppose that an organization's problem-solving networks will be most efficient if: A. they are clearly defined; B. they are consciously planned; C. they are well known throughout the organization; D. Autonomous Problem Solvers (APS's) are readily accessible to clients; E. client-centered

networks and operations networks are integrated and closely related; and F. APS's are centrally placed as facilitators. It follows logically that a "general effectiveness" comparison can be derived by ranking the organizations in order according to the extent to which they appear to meet these criteria. If an organization ranks first when compared with the other four on one of the criteria, that ranking can be assigned a value of five, a second ranking can be assigned a value of four, etc. The sum of scores thus derived yields a general effectiveness comparison. Figure 10 displays our rankings of the five organizations in relation to their general effectiveness in problem solving, based on our estimates as derived from interviews and cross-tabulation of questionnaires. For example, a network can be said to be "clearly defined" if, when examining the tabulations of organization members mentioned, there are indications of a well-identified set of individuals who are mentioned by a variety of individuals across the organization. Such a network must be said to be well-known as well. Tabulations also can indicate the proximity of problem solvers to the clients. For the rest, we believe that problem solvers can report the extent to which they plan and maintain a communication network and the kinds of communication functions they perform. We paid particular attention to information which was corroborated by several interviewees concerning the networks and their functions.

Figure 10

Figure 10 makes it clear that the farmers' cooperative has the greatest potential effectiveness, followed by the telephone company, the hospital, the manufacturing company, and the college, in that order. This ranking, in some instances, does not match the motivation ranking in Figure 9. Figure 11 shows where the two rankings diverge by combining Figure 9 and the results of Figure 10.

Figure 11

Figure 11 shows that the manufacturing company, which ranked first in client autonomy and second in organizational accountability, thus showing high motivation to be sensitive to client problems, ranks fourth in network effectiveness, while the farmers' cooperative, also high in rank according to client autonomy and organizational accountability ranks first in network effectiveness, performing as might be expected. The community college, which ranked third in both client autonomy and organizational accountability, ranks fifth in general effectiveness. The telephone company, with low motivation according to the autonomy/accountability rankings, however, was second only to the farmers' cooperative in effectiveness. The hospital, despite having ranked last in accountability and next to last in client autonomy, ranks third in effectiveness. Thus, out of five organizations, only one, the farmers' cooperative, performs as might be expected in the light of apparent motivation. The manufacturing company and the community college do worse than expected, while the telephone company and the hospital do better than expected.

CONCLUSIONS

1. In each of five diverse organizations a communication network which takes client problems into account and operates to solve them has either evolved or is formally designated. In each case this network is different from the operational networks of the organizations surveyed.

2. The client problem-solving networks were controlled by a relatively small number of individuals labeled Autonomous Problem-Solver (APS). The label is intended to focus attention on the willingness, ability and practice of these individuals to move across the organization in violation of formal communication networks when the needs of clients seem to call upon them to do so.

3. For all of the organizations described seven problem-solving functions seemed to be called for: problem prediction, detection, facilitation, referral

to resource persons, solutions, implementation, and clout. We believe that client problem-solving networks could be described and assessed by determining the methods and efficiency by which all of these functions are performed.

4. Individuals who merit the APS label exhibit the personal traits of effective managers and are located in the broad middle of the organization; high enough to be permitted access to many levels of authority and low enough to be in direct contact with client concerns on a daily basis.

5. In this sample there did not appear to be a relationship between the organizations' autonomy or client accountability and an evaluation of the efficiency of the client problem-solving network.

Figure 1

Client-centered Problem Solving Network of the Hospital

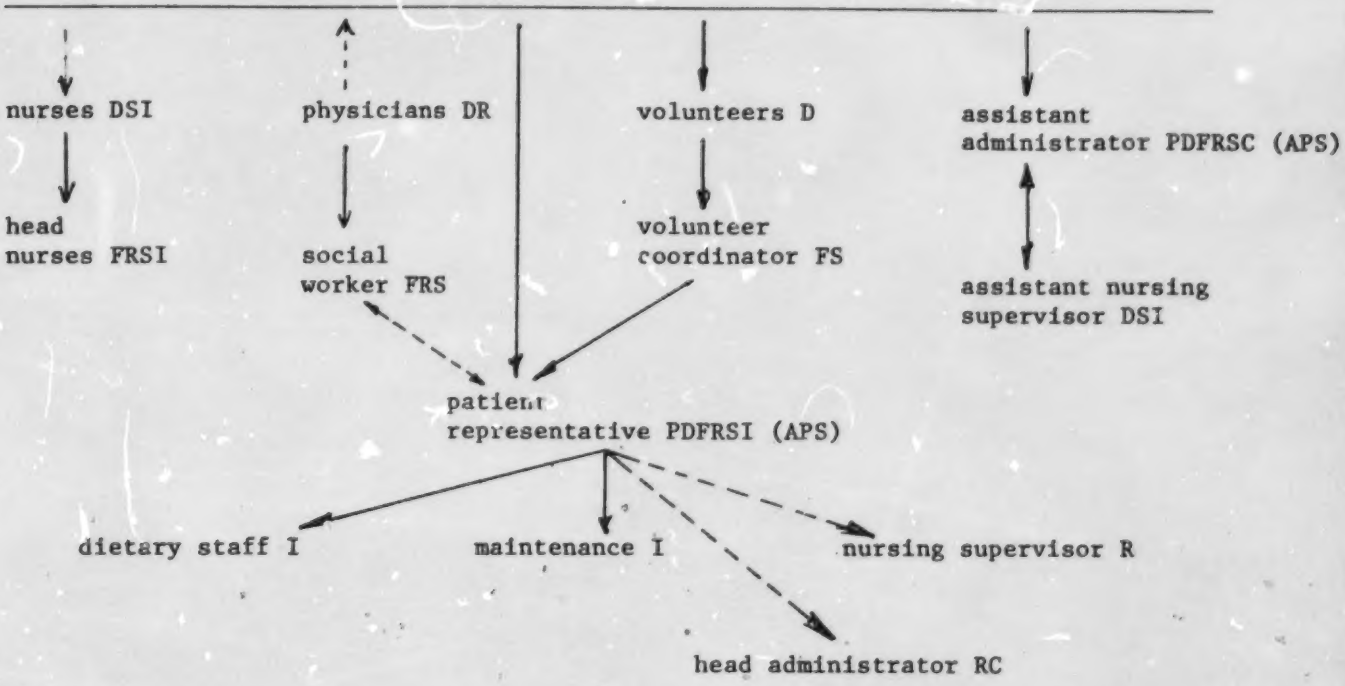


Figure 2

Operations Problem Solving Network of the Hospital

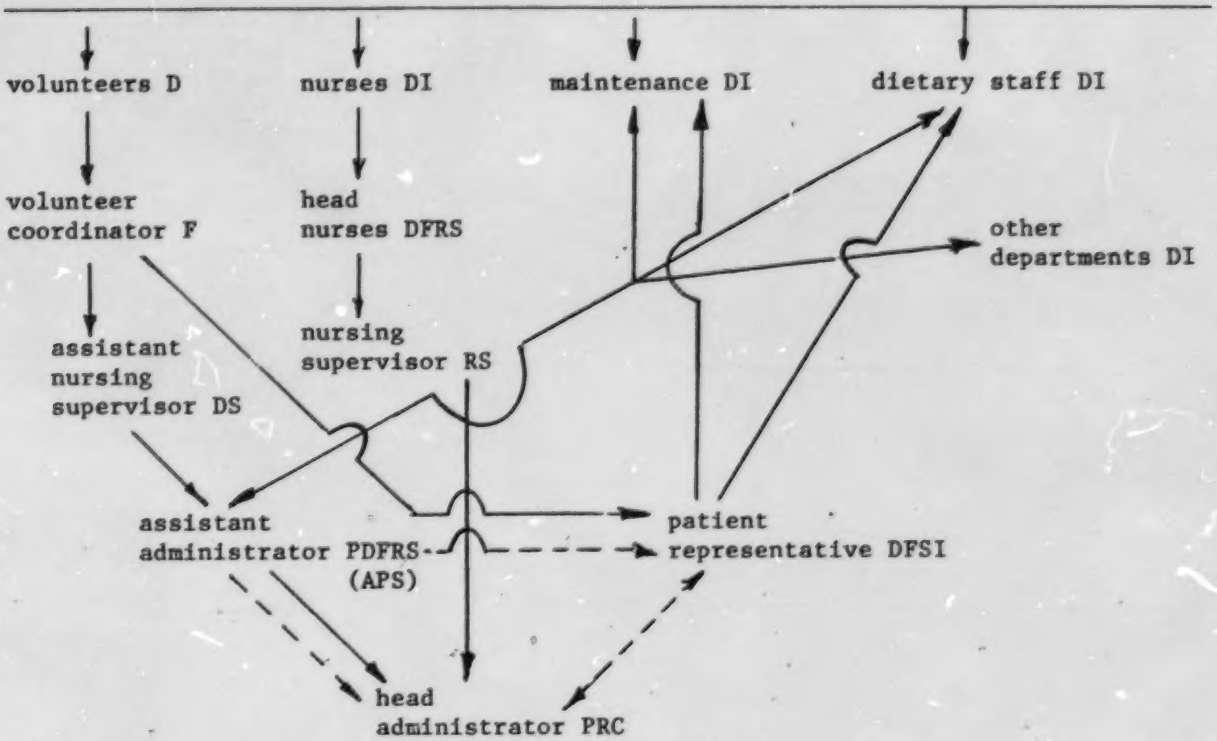
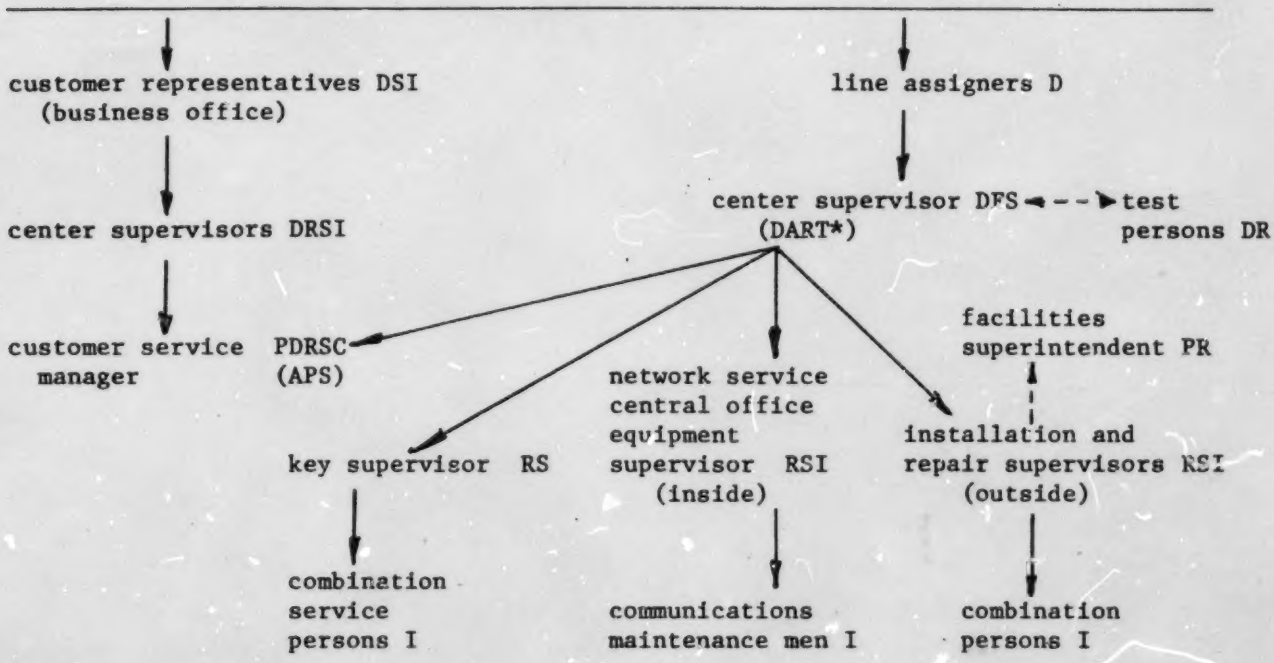


Figure 3

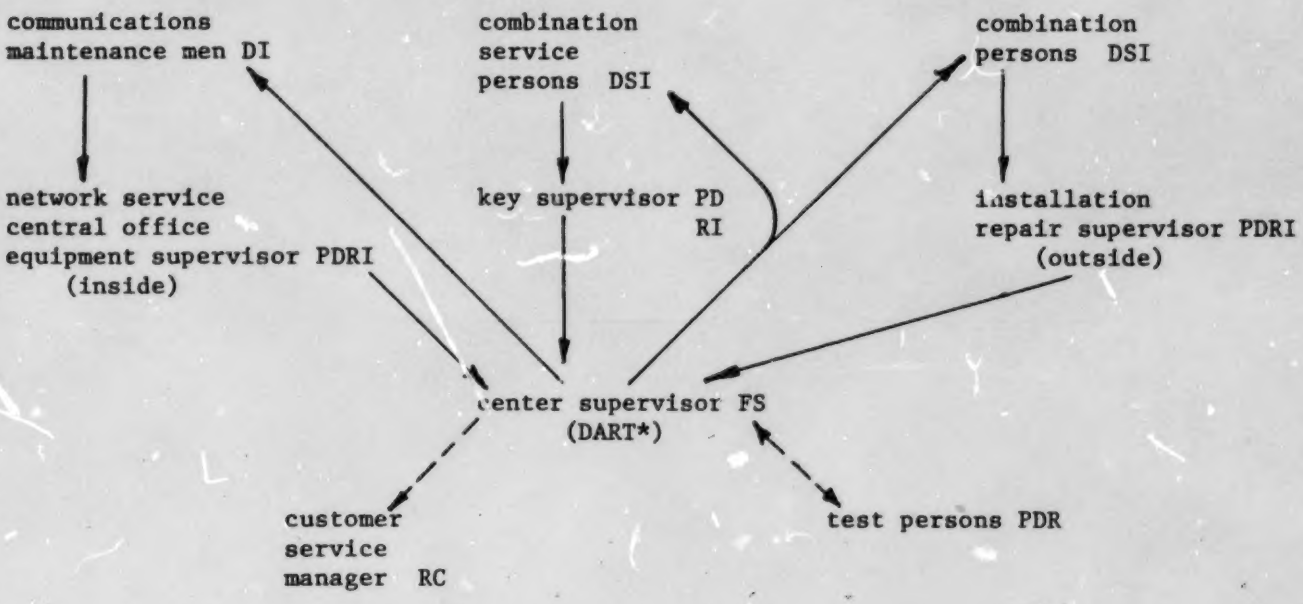
Client-centered Problem Solving Network of the Telephone Company



*dispatch/assign/repair/test

Figure 4

Operations Problem-solving Network of the Telephone Company



*dispatch/assign/repair/test.

Figure 5

Problem Solving Functions Performed
in Client-Centered Networks

Problem Solver	Organization	Prediction	Detection	Facilitation	Consultation	Solution	Implementation	Referral
1. Customer Service Manager	phone company		x		x	x		x
2. Patient Rep.	hospital	x	x	x	x	x	x	
3. Controller	farmers' cooperative	x	x		x	x	x	x
4. Asst. Administrator	hospital	x	x	x	x	x		x
5. Dean, Student Service	college	x	x		x	x	x	
6. Product Manager	manufacturing company	x	x	x	x	x		
7. Product Manager	manufacturing company	x	x	x	x	x	x	
8. Assoc. Dean Administration	college	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
9. Branch Secretary	farmers' cooperative		x	x	x	x	x	
10. Branch Secretary	farmers' cooperative		x	x	x	x	x	

Figure 6

Problem Solving Functions Performed
in Operations-Centered Networks

Problem Solver	Organization	Prediction	Detection	Facilitation	Consultation	Solution	Implementation	Referral
Asst. Administrator	hospital	x	x	x	x	x		
Controller	farmers' cooperative	x	x		x	x	x	x
Executive Dean	college	x		x	x	x		x
Product Manager	manufacturing company	x	x	x	x	x		
Product Manager	manufacturing company	x	x	x	x	x		
Branch Secretary	farmers' cooperative		x	x	x	x	x	
Branch Secretary	farmers' cooperative		x	x	x	x	x	

Figure 7

Comparative Frequencies of Problem-solving Functions by APSs of both Client-centered and Operations Networks in Order of Importance

client-centered networks	# of APSs	operations-centered networks	# of APSs
resource	8	resource	5
solver	6	solver	5
detector	8	detector	4
predictor	7	predictor	4
facilitator	5	facilitator	4
implementor	5	implementor	2
authority	4	authority	2

Figure 8

Networks in which Problem Solvers Work

Client-Centered Network	Operations-Centered Network	Both Networks
1. Customer service manager telephone company	1. Executive dean college	1. Controller farmers' cooperative
2. Patient representative hospital		2. Assistant administrator hospital
3. Dean, student services college		3. Secretary (branch) farmers' cooperative
4. Associate dean, admin. college		4. Secretary (branch) farmers' cooperative
		5. Product manager manufacturing company
		6. Product manager manufacturing company

Figure 9. Ranking of organizations studied as to client autonomy and organization's accountability, in order from most to least.

Client Autonomy	Organization's Accountability
manufacturing company	farmers' cooperative
farmers' cooperative	manufacturing company
community college	community college
hospital	telephone company
telephone company	hospital

Figure 10

Effectiveness ranking of organizations
(5=most, 4=next most, 1=lowest, etc.)

	Cooperative	Phone Co.	Hospital	Mfg. Co.	College
Clear Definition	4	5	3	2	1
Conscious Planning	4	5	3	2	1
Well Known	4	5	2	1	3
Problem Solvers Accessible	5	1	3	2	4
Network Relatedness	5	2	3	4	1
Problem Solvers Facilitators	3	2	5	4	1
	25	20	19	15	11

Figure 11

Effectiveness ranking compared with autonomy and accountability ranking

Client Autonomy	Organizations' Accountability	Network Effectiveness
manufacturing company	farmers' cooperative	farmers' cooperative
farmers' cooperative	manufacturing company	telephone company
community college	community college	hospital
hospital	telephone company	manufacturing company
telephone company	hospital	community college

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